Cannabis use at a young age is associated with psychotic experiences

C. D. Schubart^{1*}, W. A. van Gastel¹, E. J. Breetvelt¹, S. L. Beetz¹, R. A. Ophoff^{1,2,3}, I. E. C. Sommer¹, R. S. Kahn¹ and M. P. M. Boks^{1,4}

¹ Rudolf Magnus Institute of Neuroscience, University Medical Centre Utrecht, Department of Psychiatry, The Netherlands

² UCLA Center for Neurobehavioral Genetics, Los Angeles, CA, USA

⁸ Department of Medical Genetics, University Medical Centre Utrecht, The Netherlands

⁴ Julius Center for Health Sciences and Primary Care, University Medical Centre Utrecht, The Netherlands

Background. Cannabis use is associated with psychosis and a range of subclinical psychiatric symptoms. The strength of this association depends on dosage and age at first use. The current study investigates whether level of cannabis exposure and starting age are associated with specific profiles of subclinical symptoms.

Method. We collected cross-sectional data from a young adult population sample by administering an online version of the Community Assessment of Psychic Experiences (CAPE). Cannabis exposure was quantified as the amount of Euros spent on cannabis per week and the age of initial cannabis use. The primary outcome measure was the odds ratio (OR) to belong to the highest 10% of scores on the total CAPE and the positive-, negative- and depressive symptom dimensions.

Results. In 17 698 adolescents (mean age 21.6, s.D. = 4.2 years), cannabis use at age 12 years or younger was strongly associated with a top 10% score on psychotic experiences [OR 3.1, 95% confidence interval (CI) 2.1–4.3] and to a lesser degree with negative symptoms (OR 1.7, 95% CI 1.1–2.5). The OR of heavy users (> \leq 25/week) for negative symptoms was 3.4 (95% CI 2.9–4.1), for psychotic experiences 3.0 (95% CI 2.4–3.6), and for depressive symptoms 2.8 (95% CI 2.3–3.3).

Conclusions. Early start of cannabis use is strongly associated with subclinical psychotic symptoms and to a lesser degree with negative symptoms, while smoking high amounts of cannabis is associated with increased levels of all three symptom dimensions: psychotic, negative and depressive. These results support the hypothesis that the impact of cannabis use is age specific.

Received 27 April 2010; Revised 19 August 2010; Accepted 24 August 2010; First published online 7 October 2010

Key words: Cannabis, psychosis, psychotic symptoms, THC.

Introduction

Cannabis is the most widely used illicit substance in the world. The number of users is increasing and is estimated to range from 142.6 to 190.3 million worldwide, with the highest prevalence in young people (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2009). Although in the USA and Canada the overall lifetime prevalence of cannabis use is around 46%, in 18- to 24-year-olds the prevalence is 70% (Adlaf *et al.* 2005; Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, 2007). A recent US national survey (Johnston *et al.* 2009) showed that the lifetime prevalence among 13-year-old children is as high as 15%. In Europe, on average one in three adolescents between 15 and 24 years has ever used cannabis [European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drugs Addiction (EMCDDA), 2008]. Extensive use of cannabis by young individuals has led to concerns regarding potential impact on population mental health. Numerous large longitudinal studies have observed an independent effect of cannabis on the development of psychotic disorders (for a review, see Moore et al. 2007). However, the impact of cannabis use is not restricted to clinically manifest psychotic disorders. In the general population, cannabis use is dosedependently associated with subclinical psychiatric symptoms such as psychotic experiences and negative symptoms (Arseneault et al. 2002; Fergusson et al. 2003; Verdoux et al. 2003; Stefanis et al. 2004; Konings et al. 2008; Miettunen et al. 2008; Hides et al. 2009). Three of these studies report that these associations are stronger in younger subjects (Arseneault et al.

^{*} Address for correspondence: C. D. Schubart, M.D., University Medical Centre Utrecht, HP. B.01.206, Heidelberglaan 100, 3584 CX Utrecht, The Netherlands.

⁽Email: c.schubart@umcutrecht.nl)

2002; Fergusson et al. 2003; Stefanis et al. 2004). A dosedependent relationship between the amount of cannabis exposure and subclinical symptoms suggests that the level of exposure to tetrahydrocannabinol (THC), the main psychoactive component of cannabis (Mechoulam & Gaoni, 1965), determines this relationship. The association between age of initial cannabis use and subclinical symptoms is less straightforward. One possible explanation is that individuals who are prone to psychotic experiences are more inclined to smoke cannabis at an early age. However, there is also evidence suggesting that there is a window of vulnerability to cannabis exposure that explains the increased association between early use and psychiatric symptoms (Arseneault et al. 2002; Fergusson et al. 2003; Stefanis et al. 2004). Animal studies, for instance, show that exposure to THC during critical periods of brain maturation, such as early puberty, has an impact on the development of several neurotransmitter systems (Trezza et al. 2008), suggesting that THC interferes with crucial processes in brain development. It is possible that the pathophysiological mechanisms underlying the associations with amount of use and the association with age of first use are distinct. If first exposure to cannabis early in life interferes with specific developmental processes, this may be reflected in a specific profile of subclinical psychiatric symptoms. A more detailed study of the association between cannabis use and subclinical psychiatric experiences may therefore reveal how these different aspects of cannabis use have an impact on subclinical psychiatric experiences.

Since several studies show that a high score on selfreported psychotic symptoms predict an increased risk of a psychotic disorder later in life (Chapman *et al.* 1994; Poulton *et al.* 2000; Hanssen *et al.* 2005; Wiles *et al.* 2006; Yung *et al.* 2009), it is particularly interesting to study the relationship between cannabis use and high scores of these subclinical psychiatric experiences. We here report a study on the association between the amount of cannabis use and the age of initial cannabis use and top 10% scores in three symptom dimensions of self-reported psychiatric experiences in a large population sample.

Method

Participants

Participants were recruited using a project website mainly targeting Dutch-speaking adolescents and young adults (18–25 years). Recruitment strategies included cooperation with more than 100 colleges, universities and youth centres that were willing to advertise for this study on their intranet and the use

of online commercial advertisement products (i.e. banners and text links). The chance to win an Apple iPodTM or a Nintendo WiiTM was used as an incentive. Participants answered questions regarding their cannabis use, filled out the Community Assessment of Psychic Experiences (CAPE; Konings et al. 2006) questionnaire and provided their age, educational level and contact details. Submitting data anonymously was not possible. Every month approximately 670 visitors filled out our web-based questionnaires between June 2006 and February 2009. This resulted in 21838 participants. The assessment included two verification questions to protect against random answers. Participants that failed to correctly fill out the verification questions were excluded. To increase the homogeneity of the sample, participants that indicated that they were aged <10 years or >60 years of age were excluded. After exclusion of these individuals, 17698 participants remained (81% of 21838). This study was approved by the University Medical Centre Utrecht medical ethical commission and all participants gave online informed consent.

Assessments

As a measure of subclinical psychiatric experiences, the CAPE questionnaire was used. The CAPE is a 42-item, self-rating instrument and has a three-factor structure of 20 questions in the positive symptom dimension (delusional thinking, verbal and visual hallucinations), 14 in the negative and eight in the depressive dimension. It measures frequency as well as distress associated with these experiences. The questionnaire has discriminative validity for the different symptom dimensions in individuals from the general population (Stefanis et al. 2002; Hanssen et al. 2003; Konings et al. 2006) (http://www.cape42. homestead.com/). The primary outcome measure was the odds ratio (OR) to belong to the highest 10% of total- and dimensional scores (positive, negative and depressive). Web-based questionnaires are reliable for epidemiological research purposes, especially in settings in which internet access is high (Ekman et al. 2006), as is the case in The Netherlands where 99% of all adolescents use the internet on a daily basis (CBS Statistics Netherlands, 2009).

Cannabis measures

In The Netherlands, THC concentration and cannabis market value are highly correlated in marijuana (r=0.365, p<0.001) and in hashish (r=0.719, p<0.001) (Niesink *et al.* 2009). Therefore, we assessed the amount of Euros (\in) spent on cannabis per week in the last month, as a proxy measure of exposure to THC.

For reference, prices range from €4.30 for 1 g of imported marijuana with an average THC content of 5.5% to €15 per g for Dutch hashish with an average THC concentration of 33.3% (van Laar et al. 2008). Participants were asked how many Euros equivalent of cannabis they use per week and to choose one of the following classes: (1) cannabis-naive individuals who indicated never to have used cannabis; (2) participants using cannabis incidentally or spending less than \in 3 per week; (3) individuals spending between €3 and €10 per week on cannabis; (4) participants spending between €10 and €25 per week; and (5) individuals spending more than €25 per week on cannabis. All categories (except for the first two groups) applied to the last month or longer. The initial age of cannabis use was categorized by asking participants which of the following five subgroups describes their cannabisuse history: (1) participants who started to use before the age of 12 years; (2) first cannabis use between 12 and 15 years; (3) first cannabis use between 15 and 18 years; (4) first cannabis use between 18 and 20 years; and (5) individuals that started to use after their 20th birthday.

Concomitant drug use

As part of another ongoing study, the first 13 000 participants were asked to fill out a number of additional questionnaires on various topics such as concomitant drug use. A subsample of 816 participants completed a digital version of the drug-use section of the Composite International Diagnostic Interview (Robins *et al.* 1988). This subsample did not differ significantly from the total sample in terms of cannabis use, CAPE score, age, gender and educational level.

Statistical analysis

First, we analysed the relationship between the weekly amount of money spent on cannabis and having a top 10% score on the different symptom dimensions. ORs and their 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for the amount of cannabis use were calculated using logistic regression, with a dichotomized score on the total CAPE and the three dimensions of the CAPE as the dependent variable and THC exposure categories as the independent variables. Cannabis-naive individuals were used as the reference group. Corrected ORs and their 95% CI were calculated with additional adjustment for age, gender and level of education. Second, in the subgroup that used cannabis, ORs and their 95% CI for initial age of cannabis use were calculated using logistic regression, with a dichotomized score on the total CAPE and the three dimensions of the CAPE as the dependent variable and age categories as the independent variables. The age category of modal initial age (15–18 years) was used as the reference group to assess the risks of early use (i.e. before the age of 12 years) compared with a more common starting age of cannabis use. Corrected ORs and their 95% CIs were calculated with additional adjustment for age, gender and level of education.

To assess the sensitivity of our results to selection bias, we performed two additional analyses. We estimated the impact of a hypothetical decrease in the number of heavy users (> \leq 25/week) with total CAPE score in the top 10% of the distribution. The same calculation was performed considering a hypothetical decrease of individuals with a top 10% CAPE score who started to use cannabis at or before the age of 12 years. Randomly, a predefined fraction of the heavy or young users was excluded and the association between cannabis use and a top 10% CAPE score was estimated in the remaining participants. This procedure was repeated 1000 times for each predefined fraction and ORs and their CIs were pooled using Rubin's rule (Rubin, 1987).

Additional analyses were performed to assess the influence of lifetime concomitant drug use using the logistic regression model as described before with an extra indicator for concomitant use. Data were analysed using R for Windows, version 2.9.1 (Development Core Team, 2005).

Results

A total of 17 698 subjects participated in our study. The mean age in our sample was 21 years (s.D. = 4.2 years) and 51% was male. The educational level of the sample was comparable with the Dutch population in this age group (CBS Statistics Netherlands, 2008). No educational diploma had been attained by 0.1% of the sample, secondary school was the highest educational attainment in 50.4%, 34.3% had a non-academic post-secondary school diploma and 8.3% had an academic diploma. Table 1 presents further characteristics of the sample.

Initial age of cannabis use

Individuals who started to use cannabis before the age of 12 years had an adjusted OR of 3.1 (95% CI 2.1–4.3) for the highest 10% of scores on psychotic experiences compared with participants with a modal starting age (15–18 years). Starting to use between the age of 12 and 15 years resulted in an adjusted OR of 1.2 (95% CI 1.0–1.3). Initial age of cannabis use after 18 years was not associated with an increased score on psychotic experiences. An increase of experiences in the negative symptom dimension was associated with

1304 C. D. Schubart et al.

	Total group	Non-users	Users	
Participants, <i>n</i>	17 698	5842	11 856	
Gender, % male	51	32.9	57	
Mean age, years (s.D.)	21.6 (4.2)	21.0 (3.8)	22.0 (4.3)	
Mean total CAPE score (s.D.)	101.3 (30.1)	99.1 (27.2)	102.4 (31.4)	
Mean positive dimension (S.D.)	38.4 (12.7)	37.3 (11.3)	38.9 (13.3)	
Mean negative dimension (s.D.)	39.0 (14.1)	37.8 (12.9)	39.6 (14.6)	
Mean depressive dimension (S.D.)	23.9 (8.7)	24.0 (8.1)	23.9 (8.9)	

s.D., Standard deviation; CAPE, Community Assessment of Psychic Experiences.

using cannabis before the age of 12 years (OR 1.7, 95% CI 1.1–2.5) and also before the age of 15 years (OR 1.1, 95% CI 1.0–1.3). Using cannabis for the first time after the age of 18 years was not associated with an increased OR for the negative symptom dimension. In contrast, depressive symptoms were not associated with a young initial age of cannabis use. However, individuals who started after the age of 20 years experienced more depressive symptoms than the reference group (OR 1.4, 95% CI 1.0-1.8). Fig. 1 depicts adjusted ORs for five categories of initial age of cannabis use and a psychotic experiences score in the top 10% in the three symptom dimensions. Table 2 shows all adjusted ORs and their 95% CIs for top 10% scores on the total CAPE and its three symptom dimensions.

Quantity of weekly cannabis use

Analysing the ORs associated with quantity of use, we found that the OR for a top 10% score on psychotic experiences increases with the amount of cannabis that subjects indicate using weekly. ORs for a top 10% score on psychotic experiences range from 1.7 (95% CI 1.1–2.1) in users consuming €3–9 weekly to 3.0 (95%) CI 2.4–3.6) in heavy users ($> \in 25$). Likewise, quantity of use was associated with negative symptoms, with adjusted ORs ranging from 1.3 (95% CI 1.1-1.6) in participants who used between €3 and €9 per week to 3.4 (95% CI 2.9-4.1) in individuals who consumed a weekly equivalent of more than €25. Computation of the adjusted ORs for a top 10% score on depressive symptoms produced an OR of 1.3 (95% CI 1.1-1.5) in participants who used a weekly cannabis equivalent of €3–9. Spending more than €25 per week on cannabis was associated with an adjusted OR of 2.8 (95% CI 2.3–3.3) in this symptom dimension. Cannabis-naive subjects were used as the reference group in these analyses. All ORs are listed in Table 2. Fig. 2 depicts the adjusted OR per category of weekly amount of use for a top 10% score on each of the three symptom dimensions.



Fig. 1. Subclinical psychiatric symptoms and initial age of cannabis use with the modal starting age category (15–18 years) as the reference group (total $n = 11\,856$). Values are odds ratios (ORs), with 95% confidence intervals represented by vertical bars. \blacksquare , Initial age OR for a top 10% psychotic experiences score; \square , initial age OR for a top 10% negative dimension score; \square , initial age OR for a top 10% depression dimension score. ^a Adjusted for age, gender, educational level and amount of cannabis use.

Concomitant drug use

In the subsample in which information on concomitant drug use was available (n = 816, not shown in tables), we performed an additional logistic regression analysis to assess the impact of lifetime use of drugs other than cannabis on the presented associations. In the group that used more than €25-worth of cannabis weekly, the OR for a top 10% total CAPE score was 14.35 (95% CI 3.3-61.6) after adjustment for concomitant drug use. In this model, the OR for a top 10% CAPE score associated with concomitant drug use was 3.1 (95% CI 0.8–12.7). The OR for a top 10% total CAPE score in participants who started before the age of 12 years was 2.3 (95% CI 0.6-8.7) after adjustment for concomitant use. In the model for age of initial use, the OR associated with the presence or absence of concomitant drug use was 0.9 (95 % CI 0.4-2.0). A wide **Table 2.** Full-model ORs with 95% CIs for the top 10% scores on the three symptom dimensions and the total scores ofpsychiatric experiences

	Corrected OR (95% CI)
Amount of €/week OR for a top 10% total CAPE score ^a	
Cannabis naive $(n = 5842)^{b}$	1.00
	0.96 (0.82–1.13)
\in 3 to 9 (<i>n</i> = 1814)	1.46 (1.21–1.76)*
$\in 9$ to 25 (<i>n</i> = 2106)	2.00 (1.68–2.38)*
>€25 (<i>n</i> =1504)	3.54 (2.94–4.26)*
Amount of \in /week OR for a top 10% positive dimension score ^a	
Cannabis naive $(n = 5842)^{b}$	1.00
$\in 0$ to 3 (<i>n</i> =6432)	0.98 (0.84–1.15)
\in 3 to 9 (<i>n</i> = 1814)	1.72 (1.44–2.06)*
€9 to 25 ($n = 2106$)	1.96 (1.65–2.33)*
$> \in 25 \ (n = 1504)$	2.95 (2.44–3.56)*
Amount of \in /week OR for a top 10% negative dimension score ^a	
Cannabis naive $(n = 5842)^{b}$	1.00
$\in 0$ to 3 (<i>n</i> = 6432)	0.95 (0.81–1.11)
\in 3 to 9 (<i>n</i> = 1814)	1.34 (1.11–1.62)*
€9 to 25 ($n = 2106$)	2.05 (1.74–2.42)*
$> \in 25 \ (n = 1504)$	3.43 (2.87–4.10)*
Amount of €/week OR for a top 10% depressive dimension score ^a	
Cannabis naive $(n=5842)^{b}$	1.00
$\in 0$ to 3 (<i>n</i> = 6432)	1.01 (0.87–1.16)
\in 3 to 9 (<i>n</i> = 1814)	1.26 (1.05–1.52)*
€9 to 25 ($n = 2106$)	1.63 (1.37–1.94)*
>€25 (<i>n</i> =1504)	2.75 (2.28–3.32)*
Initial age OR for a top 10% total CAPE score ^c	
>20 years (<i>n</i> = 545)	1.18 (0.90–1.55)
18–20 years $(n = 1909)$	0.94 (0.78–1.13)
15–18 years $(n = 5722)^{b}$	1.00
12–15 years ($n = 3426$)	1.16 (1.01–1.32)*
< 12 years (<i>n</i> = 154)	1.82 (1.23–2.70)*
Initial age OR for a top 10% positive dimension score ^c	
>20 years (<i>n</i> = 545)	1.06 (0.76–1.48)
18–20 years ($n = 1909$)	0.84 (0.69–1.01)
15–18 years $(n = 5722)^{b}$	1.00
12–15 years ($n = 3426$)	1.15 (1.01–1.31)*
< 12 years (<i>n</i> = 154)	3.05 (2.14-4.34)*
Initial age OR for a top 10% negative dimension score ^c	
>20 years (n = 545)	1.22 (0.89–1.66)
18–20 years (n = 1909)	1.02 (0.85–1.22)
15–18 years $(n = 5722)^{\rm b}$	1.00
12–15 years ($n = 3426$)	1.14 (1.00–1.30)*
< 12 years (<i>n</i> = 154)	1.66 (1.13–2.45)*
Initial age OR for a top 10% depressive dimension score ^c	
>20 years (<i>n</i> = 545)	1.35 (1.01–1.80)*
18–20 years (<i>n</i> = 1909)	0.95 (0.79–1.14)
15–18 years $(n = 5722)^{\rm b}$	1.00
12–15 years (<i>n</i> = 3426)	1.04 (0.91–1.20)
<12 years (<i>n</i> =154)	1.24 (0.80–1.94)

OR, Odds ratio; CI, confidence interval; CAPE, Community Assessment of Psychic Experiences.

^a Adjusted for age, gender, level of education and onset age of cannabis consumption in the total study population.

^b Reference group in logistic regression analysis.

^c Adjusted for age, gender, level of education and onset age of cannabis consumption in the cannabis users.

* Significant ORs (p < 0.05).



Fig. 2. Subclinical psychiatric symptoms and weekly amount of use during the last month or longer with the cannabis-naive group as reference (total *n* = 17 698). Values are odds ratios (ORs), with 95% confidence intervals represented by vertical bars. ■, Amount of €/week OR for a top 10% psychotic experiences score; □, amount of €/week OR for a top 10% negative dimension score; □, amount of €/week OR for a top 10% depression dimension score. ^a Adjusted for age, gender and educational level.

CI and strong collinearity between concomitant drug use and an early initial age of cannabis use (r > 0.8) indicate a weak statistical model.

Analysis of sensitivity to selection bias

It is conceivable that subjects experiencing psychiatric symptoms were more likely to participate in our study. If such selection was simultaneously skewed towards those that started to use cannabis before the age of 12 years or use more than €25 per week, selection bias could have influenced the results. To quantitatively assess the sensitivity of the current design to such selection bias, we calculated the impact of a decrease in the number of participants with a high total score on psychiatric experiences (total CAPE) and (1) a history of initial cannabis use before the age of 12 years or (2) having used a cannabis equivalent of more than €25 during the last month. These analyses indicate that the OR would remain significant until 20% of participants with a high score on psychiatric experiences who also started to use cannabis before the age of 12 years are excluded from the analysis. Exclusion of 63% of participants with a high score on psychiatric experiences and heavy use (>€25/week) over the last month would render the association non-significant. The adjusted ORs for several hypothetical steps can be found in Table 3.

Discussion

We investigated the association between initial age and amount of cannabis use and psychiatric experiences in

Table 3. Selection bias analysis, showing hypothetical adjusted odds ratios after exclusion of different proportions of participants with a total CAPE score in the top 10% of the distribution and (1) initial age of use before the age of 12 years or (2) heavy use $(> \in 25/week)$ of cannabis

Proportion of excluded participants	(1) Adjusted odds ratio for onset age <12 years (95 % CI) ^a	(2) Adjusted odds ratio for amount >€25/week (95% CI) ^a
0	1.82 (1.23-2.70)	3.54 (2.94–4.26)
0.1	1.64 (1.09-2.46)	3.16 (2.61-3.83)
0.2	1.45 (0.95-2.21)	2.79 (2.29-3.40)
0.3	1.27 (0.82-1.98)	2.43 (1.98-2.98)
0.4	1.09 (0.68-1.74)	2.07 (1.67-2.56)
0.5	-	1.70 (1.36-2.13)
0.6	-	1.35 (1.06–1.71)

CAPE, Community Assessment of Psychic Experiences; CI, confidence interval.

^a Adjusted for age, gender and level of education.

three symptom dimensions (positive, negative and depressive) in a sample of over 17500 participants with a mean age of 21 years. We found that young initial age of cannabis use is strongly associated with current psychotic experiences. Although young cannabis users also had significantly increased ORs of experiencing more negative symptoms, the OR for psychotic experiences was almost twice as high. Depressive symptoms were not associated with early onset of cannabis use. We also found that the amount of cannabis use is equally strongly related to positive-, negative- and depressive symptoms. Finally, our results show that moderate cannabis use and onset of cannabis use after the age of 18 years did not increase the odds for having subclinical psychiatric experiences.

Initial age of cannabis use

An age-related association between cannabis use and subclinical symptoms has been described before. However, from these studies it is not possible to identify the most vulnerable age group (Arseneault *et al.* 2002; Fergusson *et al.* 2003; Stefanis *et al.* 2004). As these studies were cross-sectional too, they also do not allow causal inference. Therefore it is possible that this association reflects an increased propensity of young people with psychotic experiences to commence cannabis use. Another alternative explanation of these findings could be higher cumulative exposure to cannabis of early users. This hypothesis assumes that subjects that started at a young age continued to use cannabis in a certain pattern until the present date; however, detailed information on the pattern of use from onset to current use was not available. The disproportional level of psychotic symptoms among young cannabis users, compared with the more balanced profile of psychiatric symptoms that is associated with current quantity of cannabis use, is not easily explained by reverse causality or higher cumulative exposure. However, given the cross-sectional nature of the data, such causal inference cannot be made.

An alternative hypothesis is that increased vulnerability to THC during critical phases of brain maturation, as in early puberty, is reflected in a specific association between psychotic experiences and a young initial age of THC exposure. Such a window of vulnerability in early puberty is supported by a recent cohort study that showed that early cannabis use is a risk-modifying factor for psychosis-related outcomes in young adults (McGrath et al. 2010) and by experimental studies of the endocannabinoid system (ECN). The ECN plays an important role in brain organization during prenatal development and early puberty (Chevaleyre et al. 2006). Exposure to high levels of exocannabinoids, such as THC, can disrupt neuronal signalling and might interfere with the activity of the ECN during stages of high neuronal plasticity (Lewis, 1997; Trezza et al. 2008). In animal models, exposure to cannabinoids during critical periods of brain maturation has a profound influence on the development of γ -amino butyric acid (GABA)ergic- (Garcia-Gil *et al.* 1999), glutamatergic- (Suarez et al. 2004), serotonergic-(Molina-Holgado et al. 1997) and the catecholaminergic system (Garcia-Gil et al. 1997; Fernandez-Ruiz et al. 2000; Hernandez et al. 2000). In agreement with such an impact of THC exposure early in life on the development of neurotransmitter systems, a number of papers have reported a dramatic effect of THC exposure in early puberty on various cognitive measures in animals (Schneider & Koch, 2003; O'Shea et al. 2004; Cha et al. 2006; Quinn et al. 2008).

We also noticed the relatively high symptom scores among individuals that started to use cannabis after the age of 20 years.

Quantity of weekly cannabis use

The second main finding of our study is that the amount of weekly cannabis use is equally associated with positive-, negative- and depressive symptoms (Fig. 2). In subjects who use cannabis excessively (> \leq 25 per week) the OR for increased negative symptoms is 3.4 (95% CI 2.9–4.1), for psychotic experiences the OR is 3.0 (95% CI 2.4–3.6) and for a top 10% score on depressive symptoms the OR is 2.8 (95% CI 2.3–3.3). These ORs are similar to those reported for

the association between the amount of cannabis use and developing a psychotic disorder (Moore *et al.* 2007). An association of cannabis use with depression has also been found before (Patton *et al.* 2002; Moore *et al.* 2007) but not in two previous studies utilizing the CAPE (Verdoux *et al.* 2003; Stefanis *et al.* 2004).

Three previous studies reported that the association between cannabis use and psychiatric symptoms is stronger in younger subjects (Arseneault et al. 2002; Fergusson et al. 2003; Stefanis et al. 2004). However, the current study is the first to explicitly examine associations with specific symptom profiles. Due to the large sample size we are able to directly compare groups with different initial ages of cannabis use, including a group that started before the age of 12 years. Other strengths of the current study are the informative measure of THC exposure (\in /week), use of a single well-validated instrument (CAPE) in all subjects and an anonymous setting which potentially increases the questionnaire sensitivity (Buchanan & Smith, 1999; Joinson, 1999). By choosing a top 10% CAPE score as the primary outcome, a stringent measure was selected in order to increase relevancy. Individuals with particularly high scores on selfreported psychotic symptoms have a higher risk of developing a psychotic disorder later in life (Poulton et al. 2000; Wiles et al. 2006; Yung et al. 2009); by choosing a top 10% cut-off, we intended to maximize the informational value of the study.

Web-based questionnaire

The increased availability of internet access and the development of better web-based tools have improved the possibilities of acquiring information on psychiatric symptoms via the internet such that they are considered a valid additional method in epidemiological research (Meyerson & Tryon, 2003; Gosling et al. 2004; Balter et al. 2005; Ekman et al. 2006). Over the last years, numerous internet-based assessments have been validated that measure a variety of psychiatric phenotypes ranging from cannabis abuse to depression (Houston et al. 2001; Graham et al. 2006; Coles et al. 2007; Lin et al. 2007; Vallejo et al. 2007; Cuijpers et al. 2008; Graham & Papandonatos, 2008; Khazaal et al. 2008; Spek et al. 2008; Donker et al. 2009). On a more critical note, the use of web-based assessments could potentially have led to instrument inaccuracy or to information bias. However, the distribution of this potential inaccuracy is most probably independent of cannabis use (exposure measure) and psychiatric experiences (outcome measure) and is therefore unlikely to have systematically influenced the reported associations. A second potential concern is the possibility of selection bias due to the online subject recruiting strategy. However, as described in the sensitivity analysis, our results are fairly robust against selection bias. Even in the unlikely event that selection has led to a 20% increase in participants with early cannabis use and high symptoms score, the results would remain significant.

A potential limitation is the limited availability of information on concomitant drug use. However, analysis of these data shows that after adjusting for concomitant drug use, the OR for psychotic experiences increased to 14.4 (95% CI 3.3–61.6) in the group that started before the age of 12 years. Therefore, these adjusted ORs do not weaken the associations reported earlier.

Finally, it is important to notice that the associations presented here are based on current (last month) and not cumulative cannabis use. It is not known what proportion of users has a longer history of cannabis use, implicating that we cannot disentangle acute intoxication from long-term effects.

Despite the fact that the informational value of the current dataset is limited by the retrospective and cross-sectional design precluding any inference on causality, this study shows that heavy current cannabis use is associated with a different symptom profile compared with early cannabis use. This finding converges with epidemiological and animal studies and supports the hypothesis that there is a window of increased vulnerability of the maturing brain to the effects of exo-cannabinoids such as THC, during early puberty. Given the developmental nature of psychotic disorders (van Os & Kapur, 2009), further studies are warranted to examine the influence of cannabis on brain development.

Acknowledgements

This study was financially supported by a grant of the NWO (Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research), grant no. 91207039.

The study was performed at the University Medical Centre Utrecht, The Netherlands.

Declaration of Interest

None.

References

Adlaf EM, Begin P, Sawka E (2005). Canadian Addiction Survey (CAS): A National Survey of Canadians' Use of Alcohol and Other Drugs: Prevalence of Use and Related Harms: Detailed Report. Canadian Centre on Substance Abuse: Ottawa, Canada. Arseneault L, Cannon M, Poulton R, Murray R, Caspi A, Moffitt TE (2002). Cannabis use in adolescence and risk for adult psychosis: longitudinal prospective study. *British Medical Journal* 325, 1212–1213.

Balter KA, Balter O, Fondell E, Lagerros YT (2005). Web-based and mailed questionnaires: a comparison of response rates and compliance. *Epidemiology* 16, 577–579.

Buchanan T, Smith JL (1999). Using the Internet for psychological research: personality testing on the World Wide Web. *British Journal of Psychology* **90**, 125–144.

CBS Statistics Netherlands (2008). Bijna evenveel hoogopgeleide als laagopgeleide Nederlanders (Almost as many high-skilled and unskilled Dutch). *CBS Webmagazine* publication no. 2436. Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (CBS; Dutch Central Bureau of Statistics): The Hague, The Netherlands.

CBS Statistics Netherlands (2009). Press Release, Oktober 28th 2009: Mediaproducten steeds meer via Internet (Media products are increasingly using the Internet). Publication no. PB08-071. Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (CBS; Dutch Central Bureau of Statistics): The Hague, The Netherlands.

Cha YM, White AM, Kuhn CM, Wilson WA, Swartzwelder HS (2006). Differential effects of delta9-THC on learning in adolescent and adult rats. *Pharmacology*, *Biochemistry and Behavior* 83, 448–455.

Chapman LJ, Chapman JP, Kwapil TR, Eckblad M, Zinser MC (1994). Putatively psychosis-prone subjects 10 years later. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology* **103**, 171–183.

Chevaleyre V, Takahashi KA, Castillo PE (2006). Endocannabinoid-mediated synaptic plasticity in the CNS. *Annual Review of Neuroscience* **29**, 37–76.

- **Coles ME, Cook LM, Blake TR** (2007). Assessing obsessive compulsive symptoms and cognitions on the Internet: evidence for the comparability of paper and Internet administration. *Behaviour Research and Therapy* **45**, 2232–2240.
- Cuijpers P, Boluijt P, van Straten A (2008). Screening of depression in adolescents through the Internet: sensitivity and specificity of two screening questionnaires. *European Child and Adolescent Psychiatry* 17, 32–38.
- **Development Core Team** (2005). *R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing*. R Foundation for Statistical Computing: Vienna.

Donker T, van Straten A, Marks I, Cuijpers P (2009). Brief self-rated screening for depression on the Internet. *Journal of Affective Disorders* **122**, 253–259.

Ekman A, Dickman PW, Klint A, Weiderpass E, Litton JE (2006). Feasibility of using web-based questionnaires in large population-based epidemiological studies. *European Journal of Epidemiology* **21**, 103–111.

European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drugs Addiction (EMCDDA) (2008). Annual Report: The State of the Drugs Problem in Europe. EMCDDA: Lisbon, Portugal.

- Fergusson DM, Horwood LJ, Swain-Campbell NR (2003). Cannabis dependence and psychotic symptoms in young people. *Psychological Medicine* **33**, 15–21.
- Fernandez-Ruiz J, Berrendero F, Hernandez ML, Ramos JA (2000). The endogenous cannabinoid system and brain development. *Trends in Neurosciences* 23, 14–20.

Garcia-Gil L, de Miguel R, Munoz RM, Cebeira M, Villanua MA, Ramos JA, Fernandez-Ruiz JJ (1997). Perinatal delta(9)-tetrahydrocannabinol exposure alters the responsiveness of hypothalamic dopaminergic neurons to dopamine-acting drugs in adult rats. *Neurotoxicology and Teratology* **19**, 477–487.

Garcia-Gil L, de Miguel R, Romero J, Perez A, Ramos JA, Fernandez-Ruiz JJ (1999). Perinatal delta9tetrahydrocannabinol exposure augmented the magnitude of motor inhibition caused by GABA(B), but not GABA(A), receptor agonists in adult rats. *Neurotoxicology and Teratology* **21**, 277–283.

Gosling SD, Vazire S, Srivastava S, John OP (2004). Should we trust web-based studies? A comparative analysis of six preconceptions about Internet questionnaires. *American Psychologist* **59**, 93–104.

Graham AL, Papandonatos GD (2008). Reliability of Internet- *versus* telephone-administered questionnaires in a diverse sample of smokers. *Journal of Medical Internet Research* **10**, e8.

Graham AL, Papandonatos GD, Bock BC, Cobb NK, Baskin-Sommers A, Niaura R, Abrams DB (2006). Internet- vs. telephone-administered questionnaires in a randomized trial of smoking cessation. *Nicotine and Tobacco Research* 8 (Suppl. 1), S49–S57.

Hanssen M, Bak M, Bijl R, Vollebergh W, van Os J (2005). The incidence and outcome of subclinical psychotic experiences in the general population. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology* 44, 181–191.

Hanssen M, Peeters F, Krabbendam L, Radstake S, Verdoux H, van Os J (2003). How psychotic are individuals with non-psychotic disorders? *Social Psychiatry* and Psychiatric Epidemiology 38, 149–154.

Hernandez M, Berrendero F, Suarez I, Garcia-Gil L, Cebeira M, Mackie K, Ramos JA, Fernandez-Ruiz J (2000). Cannabinoid CB(1) receptors colocalize with tyrosine hydroxylase in cultured fetal mesencephalic neurons and their activation increases the levels of this enzyme. *Brain Research* **857**, 56–65.

Hides L, Lubman DI, Buckby J, Yuen HP, Cosgrave E, Baker K, Yung AR (2009). The association between early cannabis use and psychotic-like experiences in a community adolescent sample. *Schizophrenia Research* 112, 130–135.

Houston TK, Cooper LA, Vu HT, Kahn J, Toser J, Ford DE (2001). Screening the public for depression through the Internet. *Psychiatric Services* **52**, 362–367.

Johnston LD, O'Malley PM, Bachman JG, Schulenberg JE (2009). Monitoring the Future National Results on Adolescent Drug Use: Overview of Key Findings, 2008. NIH publication no. 09-7401. National Institute on Drug Abuse: Bethesda, MD.

Joinson A (1999). Social desirability, anonymity, and Internet-based questionnaires. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, and Computers* **31**, 433–438.

Khazaal Y, Chatton A, Cochand S, Zullino D (2008). Quality of web-based information on cannabis addiction. *Journal of Drug Education* 38, 97–107.

Konings M, Bak M, Hanssen M, van Os J, Krabbendam L (2006). Validity and reliability of the CAPE: a self-report instrument for the measurement of psychotic experiences in the general population. *Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica* **114**, 55–61.

Konings M, Henquet C, Maharajh HD, Hutchinson G, van Os J (2008). Early exposure to cannabis and risk for psychosis in young adolescents in Trinidad. *Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica* **118**, 209–213.

Lewis DA (1997). Development of the prefrontal cortex during adolescence: insights into vulnerable neural circuits in schizophrenia. *Neuropsychopharmacology* **16**, 385–398.

Lin CC, Bai YM, Liu CY, Hsiao MC, Chen JY, Tsai SJ, Ouyang WC, Wu CH, Li YC (2007). Web-based tools can be used reliably to detect patients with major depressive disorder and subsyndromal depressive symptoms. *BMC Psychiatry* 7, 12.

McGrath J, Welham J, Scott J, Varghese D, Degenhardt L, Hayatbakhsh MR, Alati R, Williams GM, Bor W, Najman JM (2010). Association between cannabis use and psychosis-related outcomes using sibling pair analysis in a cohort of young adults. *Archives of General Psychiatry* **67**, 440–447.

Mechoulam R, Gaoni Y (1965). A total synthesis of DL-delta-1-tetrahydrocannabinol, the active constituent of hashish. *Journal of the American Chemical Society* **87**, 3273–3275.

Meyerson P, Tryon WW (2003). Validating Internet research: a test of the psychometric equivalence of Internet and in-person samples. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, and Computers* **35**, 614–620.

Miettunen J, Tormanen S, Murray GK, Jones PB, Maki P, Ebeling H, Moilanen I, Taanila A, Heinimaa M, Joukamaa M, Veijola J (2008). Association of cannabis use with prodromal symptoms of psychosis in adolescence. *British Journal of Psychiatry* **192**, 470–471.

Molina-Holgado F, Alvarez FJ, Gonzalez I, Antonio MT, Leret ML (1997). Maternal exposure to delta 9-tetrahydrocannabinol (delta 9-THC) alters indolamine levels and turnover in adult male and female rat brain regions. *Brain Research Bulletin* **43**, 173–178.

Moore TH, Zammit S, Lingford-Hughes A, Barnes TR, Jones PB, Burke M, Lewis G (2007). Cannabis use and risk of psychotic or affective mental health outcomes: a systematic review. *Lancet* **370**, 319–328.

Niesink R, Rigter S, Hoek J, den Boer N (2009). THC-concentraties in wiet, nederwiet en hasj in Nederlands coffeeshops (2008–2009). Trimbos Institute, The Netherlands Institute of Mental Health and Addiction: Utrecht, The Netherlands.

O'Shea M, Singh ME, McGregor IS, Mallet PE (2004). Chronic cannabinoid exposure produces lasting memory impairment and increased anxiety in adolescent but not adult rats. *Journal of Psychopharmacology* **18**, 502–508.

Patton GC, Coffey C, Carlin JB, Degenhardt L, Lynskey M, Hall W (2002). Cannabis use and mental health in young people : cohort study. *British Medical Journal* **325**, 1195–1198.

Poulton R, Caspi A, Moffitt TE, Cannon M, Murray R, Harrington H (2000). Children's self-reported psychotic symptoms and adult schizophreniform disorder: a 15-year longitudinal study. *Archives of General Psychiatry* 57, 1053–1058. Quinn HR, Matsumoto I, Callaghan PD, Long LE, Arnold JC, Gunasekaran N, Thompson MR, Dawson B, Mallet PE, Kashem MA, Matsuda-Matsumoto H, Iwazaki T, McGregor IS (2008). Adolescent rats find repeated delta(9)-THC less aversive than adult rats but display greater residual cognitive deficits and changes in hippocampal protein expression following exposure. *Neuropsychopharmacology* **33**, 1113–1126.

Robins LN, Wing J, Wittchen HU, Helzer JE, Babor TF, Burke J, Farmer A, Jablenski A, Pickens R, Regier DA (1988). The Composite International Diagnostic Interview. An epidemiologic instrument suitable for use in conjunction with different diagnostic systems and in different cultures. Archives of General Psychiatry 45, 1069–1077.

Rubin DB (1987). *Multiple Imputation for Nonresponse in Surveys* (1st edn). John Wiley & Sons: New York.

Schneider M, Koch M (2003). Chronic pubertal, but not adult chronic cannabinoid treatment impairs sensorimotor gating, recognition memory, and the performance in a progressive ratio task in adult rats. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 28, 1760–1769.

Spek V, Nyklicek I, Cuijpers P, Pop V (2008). Internet administration of the Edinburgh Depression Scale. *Journal of Affective Disorders* **106**, 301–305.

Stefanis NC, Delespaul P, Henquet C, Bakoula C, Stefanis CN, van Os J (2004). Early adolescent cannabis exposure and positive and negative dimensions of psychosis. *Addiction* 99, 1333–1341.

Stefanis NC, Hanssen M, Smirnis NK, Avramopoulos DA, Evdokimidis IK, Stefanis CN, Verdoux H, van Os J (2002). Evidence that three dimensions of psychosis have a distribution in the general population. *Psychological Medicine* 32, 347–358.

Suarez I, Bodega G, Fernandez-Ruiz J, Ramos JA, Rubio M, Fernandez B (2004). Down-regulation of the AMPA glutamate receptor subunits GluR1 and GluR2/3 in the rat cerebellum following pre- and perinatal delta9tetrahydrocannabinol exposure. *Cerebellum* **3**, 66–74. Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (2008). Results from the 2007 National Survey on Drug Use and Health: National Findings. Office of Applied Studies, NSDUH Series H-34. DHHS publication no. SMA 08-4343. SAMHSA, Office of Applied Studies: Rockville, MD.

Trezza V, Cuomo V, Vanderschuren LJ (2008). Cannabis and the developing brain: insights from behavior. *European Journal of Pharmacology* 585, 441–452.

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2009). World Drug Report 2009. UNODC: Vienna, Austria.

Vallejo MA, Jordan CM, Diaz MI, Comeche MI, Ortega J (2007). Psychological assessment via the Internet: a reliability and validity study of online (vs paper-and-pencil) versions of the General Health Questionnaire-28 (GHQ-28) and the Symptoms Check-List-90 – Revised (SCL-90-R). *Journal of Medical Internet Research* 9, e2.

van Laar MW, Cruts AAN, Verdurmen JEE, van Ooyen-Houben MMJ, Meijer RF (2008). National Drugs Monitor 2007. Trimbos Institute, The Netherlands Institute of Mental Health and Addiction: Utrecht, The Netherlands.

van Os J, Kapur S (2009). Schizophrenia. Lancet 374, 635–645.

Verdoux H, Sorbara F, Gindre C, Swendsen JD, van Os J (2003). Cannabis use and dimensions of psychosis in a nonclinical population of female subjects. *Schizophrenia Research* **59**, 77–84.

Wiles NJ, Zammit S, Bebbington P, Singleton N, Meltzer H, Lewis G (2006). Self-reported psychotic symptoms in the general population: results from the longitudinal study of the British National Psychiatric Morbidity Survey. *British Journal of Psychiatry* **188**, 519–526.

Yung AR, Nelson B, Baker K, Buckby JA, Baksheev G, Cosgrave EM (2009). Psychotic-like experiences in a community sample of adolescents: implications for the continuum model of psychosis and prediction of schizophrenia. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry* **43**, 118–128.